



## **Economic and Social Council**

Distr.: General  
15 December 1998

Original: English

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### **Commission on Population and Development**

**Thirty-second session**

**22-24 March 1999**

**Item 2 of the provisional agenda**

**Adoption of the agenda and other organizational matters**

#### **Provisional agenda**

1. Election of officers.
2. Adoption of the agenda and other organizational matters.
3. Follow-up actions to the recommendations of the International Conference on Population and Development.
4. World population situation.
5. Work of the Commission on Population and Development in the next quinquennium.
6. Programme implementation and future programme of work of the Secretariat in the field of population.
7. Provisional agenda for the thirty-third session of the Commission.
8. Adoption of the report of the Commission on its thirty-second session.

#### **Annotations**

##### **1. Election of officers**

Rule 15 of the rules of procedure of the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council stipulates that at the commencement of its first meeting of a regular session, the Commission shall elect, from among the representatives of its members, a Chairman, one or more Vice-Chairmen and such other officers as may be required.

At past sessions, the Commission has elected a Chairman, three Vice-Chairmen and a Rapporteur.



**2. Adoption of the agenda and other organizational matters**

Rule 7 of the rules of procedure requires that the Commission shall, at the beginning of each session, after the election of its officers, adopt the agenda for that session on the basis of the provisional agenda.

On the recommendation of the Commission at its thirty-first session, the Economic and Social Council, in its decision 1998/222, approved the provisional agenda and documentation for the thirty-second session of the Commission.

**3. Follow-up actions to the recommendations of the International Conference on Population and Development**

In its resolution 49/128 of 19 December 1994, in which it endorsed the recommendations of the International Conference on Population and Development, the General Assembly decided that the Commission on Population and Development, as a functional commission assisting the Economic and Social Council, would monitor, review and assess the implementation of the Programme of Action of the Conference at the national, regional and international levels, and would advise the Council thereon.

In the same resolution, the General Assembly called upon the organizations and bodies of the United Nations system to undertake the actions required to give full and effective support to the implementation of the Programme of Action (para. 10). The Assembly requested the specialized agencies and all related organizations of the United Nations system to review and, where necessary, adjust their programmes and activities in line with the Programme of Action, and to take appropriate measures to ensure its full and effective implementation, taking into account the specific needs of developing countries (para. 22). The Assembly requested the Council to consider the submission of recommendations to the Secretary-General on the establishment of an appropriate mechanism for inter-agency coordination, collaboration and harmonization in the implementation of the Programme of Action (para. 28 (c)).

In the terms of reference of the Commission (E/1995/27, annex I, sect. I.A), which were endorsed by the Economic and Social Council in its resolution 1995/55, the Commission was called upon to adopt a topic-oriented and prioritized multi-year work programme, culminating in a quinquennial review and appraisal of the Programme of Action. That work programme, *inter alia*, will provide a framework for assessing the progress achieved in the implementation of the Programme of Action. In the report of the Commission on its twenty-eighth session, which the Economic and Social Council took note of in its decision 1995/236, the Commission called for the preparation of annual reports on a selected topic of the Programme of Action (see E/1995/27, annex I, sect. III). The topic for 1999 is "Population growth, structure and distribution, with special emphasis on sustained economic growth and sustainable development, including education"; a report on that topic will be before the Commission.

The Commission, in resolution 1997/1, requested the Chairperson of the Task Force on Basic Social Services for All of the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC) to disseminate the results of the technical symposium on international migration to Member States and other relevant parties and to report back to the Commission at its 1999 session. A report on the technical symposium will be before the Commission.

### **Documentation**

Concise report of the Secretary-General on world population monitoring, 1999: population growth, structure and distribution (E/CN.9/1999/2)

Report of the Technical Symposium on International Migration and Development of the ACC Task Force on Basic Social Services for All (E/CN.9/1999/3)

Report of the Secretary-General on the flow of financial resources for assisting in the implementation of the Programme of Action (E/CN.9/1999/4)

## **4. World population situation**

The Economic and Social Council, in resolution 1996/2, proposed that, in addition to their special coverage in the *World Population Monitoring* reports, main demographic trends be covered biennially, starting in 1997, in a complementary concise report prepared by the Population Division of the United Nations Secretariat.

### **Documentation**

Report of the Secretary-General on world demographic trends (E/CN.9/1999/5)

## **5. Work of the Commission on Population and Development in the next quinquennium**

By the conclusion of the thirty-second session, the Commission will have completed its first five-year topic-oriented and prioritized work programme following the International Conference on Population and Development. At its thirty-first session, in decision 1998/1, the Commission decided that "Population, gender and development" should be the special theme for the Commission at its thirty-third session, in 2000. The Bureau of the Commission, at its 1998 inter-sessional meeting, proposed topics for 2001 to 2003. The Director of the Population Division will report to the Commission on the recommendations of the Bureau.

## **6. Programme implementation and future programme of work of the Secretariat in the field of population**

At its twenty-eighth session, the Commission requested the Secretary-General, *inter alia*, to continue to give high priority to the monitoring of population trends and policies; undertake biennial preparation of estimates and projections of global, national, urban, rural and city populations; conduct studies on population and related development policies; prepare studies on interactions of population change; carry out analyses of mortality; contribute to and coordinate in-depth studies on fertility and nuptiality and reproductive rights and health, including family planning; undertake studies to improve the understanding of the causes and consequences of internal migration and international migration; increase public awareness of and information exchange on population and development issues; make the necessary arrangements for coordinating the review and appraisal of the Programme of Action; and provide technical cooperation support to developing countries, particularly the least developed countries, and, on a temporary basis, to countries with economies in transition, in the light of the economic and social problems that those countries face at present. The Commission reaffirmed the work programme at its twenty-ninth session (Commission resolution 1996/1).

At its thirtieth session, the Commission stressed the importance of continuing the basic work of the Population Division of the United Nations Secretariat on the crucial underpinnings of population estimates and projections; basic population trends and issues, including

fertility, mortality, migration and patterns of rural and urban population change; the evolution of population policies; and understanding of the links between population and development (Commission resolution 1997/3).

For its consideration of the above-mentioned activities, the Commission will have before it a report on progress achieved in the field of population since its thirty-first session. At its fifty-first session, the General Assembly adopted the proposed medium-term plan for the period 1998–2001, and reaffirmed that the plan was the principal policy directive of the United Nations and should serve as a framework for the formulation of the biennial programme budget (resolution 51/219, sect. I). Programme 28 (Economic and social affairs) of the medium-term plan for the period 1998–2001 (A/53/6 (Prog.28)) includes a subprogramme on population, which will be made available to the Commission as a background document.

The Commission will have before it notes by the Secretary-General on the proposed programme of work for the biennium 2000–2001, drawn up in accordance with the strategy described in the subprogramme on population of the medium-term plan for the period 1998–2001.

#### **Documentation**

Report of the Secretary-General on programme implementation and the programme of work for the biennium 1998–1999: Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (E/CN.9/1999/6)

Note by the Secretary-General on the proposed programme of work in population for the biennium 2000–2001: Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (E/CN.9/1999/7)

Note by the Secretary-General on the proposed programme of work for the biennium 2000–2001: Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (E/CN.9/1999/CRP.1)

#### **7. Provisional agenda for the thirty-third session of the Commission**

In accordance with rule 9 of the rules of procedure, the Commission will have before it the draft provisional agenda for its thirty-third session, together with an indication of the documents to be submitted under each item and the legislative authority for their preparation, in order to enable the Commission to consider those documents from the point of view of their contribution to the work of the Commission and their urgency and relevance in the light of the current situation.

The attention of the Commission is drawn to Economic and Social Council resolutions 1979/41 and 1981/83 on the control and limitation of documentation. In addition, the Commission is reminded that the Council, in paragraph 1 (j) of resolution 1982/50 on the revitalization of the Council, urged all its subsidiary bodies to exercise the utmost restraint in making requests of the Secretary-General for new reports and studies, and urged them to implement fully the decisions of the Council and of the Assembly on the control and limitation of documentation.

The attention of the Commission is also drawn to paragraph 4 of the annex to Council resolution 1982/50, in which the Secretary-General recommended that (a) the documentation and programme of work of the subsidiary bodies of the Council and the Assembly should be streamlined in order to enable the subsidiary bodies to perform effectively the functions entrusted to them; (b) the Council and the Assembly should continue to review the

provisional agendas of their subsidiary bodies, together with the list of requested documentation, in order, *inter alia*, to establish greater consistency in the overall requests for documentation and its orderly consideration at the intergovernmental level, taking fully into account the medium-term plan and the programme budget; and (c) in doing so, the Council and the Assembly should also take into account the need to consolidate the items and documentation of their subsidiary machinery.

Furthermore, in its resolution 1981/83, the Council instructed its subsidiary bodies to take urgent measures to streamline their agendas and programmes of work and to bring about a substantial reduction in their requests for documents, bearing in mind the duration and cycles of their meetings, and to report to the Council on measures adopted, taking strictly into account the guidelines set forth in the pertinent resolutions and decisions of the Council and the Assembly.

In decision 1983/163, the Council requested the Secretary-General (a) to bring to the attention of intergovernmental and expert bodies, before decisions were adopted, any request for documentation that exceeded the ability of the Secretariat to prepare and process on time and within its approved resources; and (b) to draw the attention of intergovernmental bodies to areas where duplication of documentation was likely to occur and/or where opportunities for integrating or consolidating documents that dealt with related or similar themes might exist, with a view to rationalizing documentation.

#### **Documentation**

Draft provisional agenda for the thirty-third session of the Commission

#### **8. Adoption of the report of the Commission on its thirty-second session**

In accordance with rule 37 of the rules of procedure, the Commission shall submit to the Economic and Social Council a report on the work of each session.

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## Economic and Social Council

Distr.: General  
7 December 1998

Original: English

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### Commission on Population and Development

Thirty-second session

22-30 March 1999

Item 3 of the provisional agenda\*

**World population situation**

### **Concise report on world population monitoring, 1999: population growth, structure and distribution**

#### **Report of the Secretary-General**

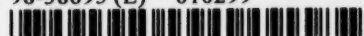
#### *Summary*

The present report has been prepared in accordance with the terms of reference of the Commission on Population and Development and its topic-oriented prioritized multi-year work programme, which was endorsed by the Economic and Social Council in its resolution 1995/55.

The report provides a summary of recent information on population growth, structure and distribution, and covers such topics as population growth and its components; changing population age structures; population distribution, urbanization and internal migration; and population growth, poverty, food provision and the environment. The report also reviews the population policies Governments have adopted in response to their concerns with national aspects of population and development. This report not only covers past and present trends, but also provides projections to the year 2050. The preliminary, unedited version of the full report is available as a working paper in document ESA/WP/147.

The report was prepared by the Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat; the appendix to this report was based on a contribution from the United Nations Statistics Division.

\* E/CN.9/1999/1.



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## Introduction

1. The second half of the twentieth century was demographically remarkable. This is especially the case for the quarter-century since the 1974 United Nations World Population Conference in Bucharest. World population size has increased from 4 billion persons to nearly 6 billion today. At the same time, the world population growth rate has fallen from about 2 per cent per year in 1970–1975 to 1.3 per cent today, the average number of children per couple has fallen from 4.5 to 2.7 and life expectancy at birth has risen from 56 years to 65 years. The share of the world's population living in urban areas has increased from 36 to 47 per cent and the number of megacities of 10 million persons or more has multiplied from 5 to 18. The number of persons who have moved to another country has risen to over 125 million today.

2. The demographic transition (that is to say, the transition from high to low birth and death rates) has not proceeded uniformly in all countries. In 1974, the transition was well under way or nearly completed in many countries and had barely begun in others. Although in 1998 this transition has occurred or is occurring in nearly every country, the timing and pace of the transition vary; and in some regions and countries, steps backward are occurring. For example, acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) and other emerging diseases in some countries and economic and political dislocations in others have reversed past progress in improving health and reducing mortality.

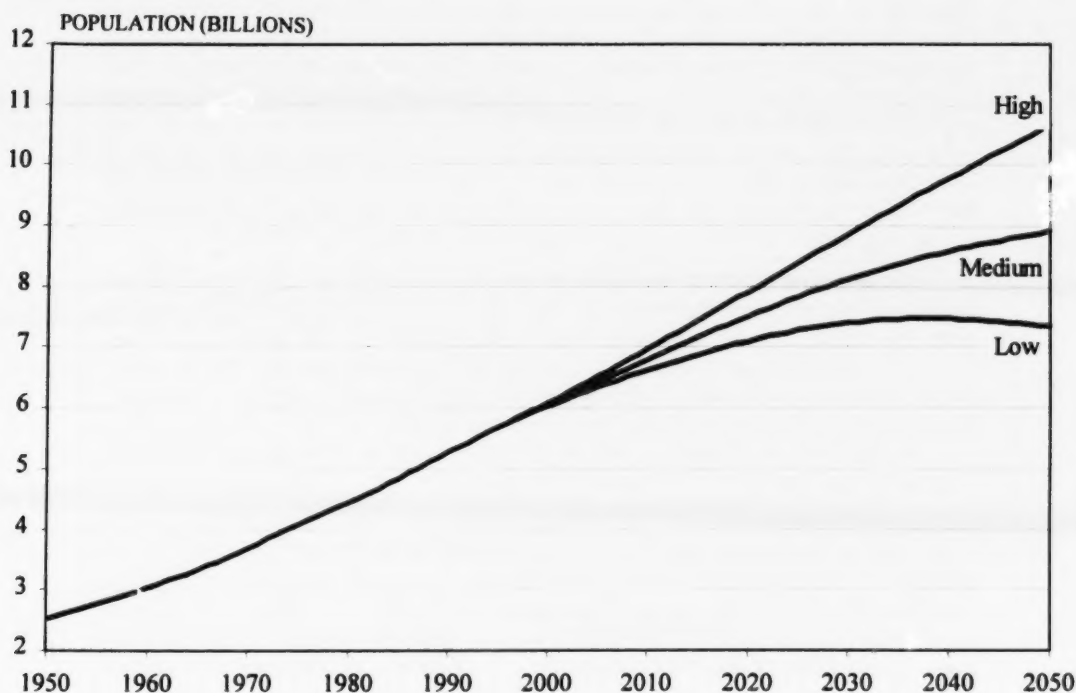
3. The 1999 concise report on population growth, structure and distribution reviews the demographic changes in population size and growth in the world and its urban and rural areas; the changes in mortality, fertility and migration that underlie these changes; and the population policies Governments have adopted in response to their concerns with national aspects of population and development. The concise report concludes with a review of the state of knowledge on the interrelationships of population with poverty, food and the environment.

## I. Population growth and its components

4. The world population in 1998 is 5.9 billion persons, growing at a rate of 1.3 per cent annually (figure 1). Each year, about 78 million persons are added to the world. About 96 per cent of the total annual population increase occurs in the less developed regions. According to the United Nations official population estimates and projections, the world population in 2050 will be in the range of 7.3 billion to 10.7 billion persons. In the medium-fertility variant projection, which is often considered the most likely, world population will stand at 8.9 billion persons in 2050.

5. As a result of the marked differences in growth patterns, the proportion of people living in the more developed regions has declined and is projected to continue to decline significantly. While in 1970, about one quarter of the world lived in the more developed regions, one of five did so in 1998. In the United Nations medium-fertility variant projection, just 13 per cent of the world population will reside in the more developed regions in 2050.

**Figure 1**  
**World population size: past estimates and medium-, high- and low fertility**  
**variants, 1950-2050**



Source: Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 1998 Revision* (United Nations publication, forthcoming).

6. Annual population growth rates vary widely among countries, from negative growth among some Eastern European countries to very high growth rates among some African and Asian countries. Altogether, there are 24 countries, constituting 1.7 per cent of the world population, that exhibit average annual growth rates of 3.0 per cent or higher. On the other side of the spectrum, 24 countries, with 6.1 per cent of the global population, have declining populations. Two thirds of the world live in the 88 countries that exhibit growth rates between 0.5 and 2 per cent annually.

7. The number of countries with 100 million or more inhabitants has increased rapidly (see table 1). In 1950, there were just 4 such countries; in 1998 there were 10 and it is projected that by 2050 there will be 18. In 1998, China was the largest country of the world with 1.26 billion persons, followed by India with 982 million persons. The third, fourth and fifth largest were the United States of America (274 million), Indonesia (206 million) and Brazil (166 million). According to the United Nations medium-fertility variant projection, India will be the largest country in the world in 2050 with 1.53 billion persons, followed by China (1.48 billion), the United States (349 million), Pakistan (345 million) and Indonesia (312 million).

**Table 1**  
**Countries with a population of over 100 million in 1950, 1998 and 2050**

| <i>Rank</i> | <i>Country</i>                   | <i>Population (millions)</i> |
|-------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1950        |                                  |                              |
| 1           | China                            | 555                          |
| 2           | India                            | 358                          |
| 3           | United States of America         | 158                          |
| 4           | Russian Federation               | 102                          |
| 1998        |                                  |                              |
| 1           | China                            | 1 256                        |
| 2           | India                            | 982                          |
| 3           | United States of America         | 274                          |
| 4           | Indonesia                        | 206                          |
| 5           | Brazil                           | 166                          |
| 6           | Pakistan                         | 148                          |
| 7           | Russian Federation               | 147                          |
| 8           | Japan                            | 128                          |
| 9           | Bangladesh                       | 125                          |
| 10          | Nigeria                          | 106                          |
| 2050        |                                  |                              |
| 1           | India                            | 1 478                        |
| 2           | China                            | 1 529                        |
| 3           | United States of America         | 349                          |
| 4           | Pakistan                         | 345                          |
| 5           | Indonesia                        | 312                          |
| 6           | Nigeria                          | 244                          |
| 7           | Brazil                           | 244                          |
| 8           | Bangladesh                       | 212                          |
| 9           | Ethiopia                         | 169                          |
| 10          | Democratic Republic of the Congo | 160                          |
| 11          | Mexico                           | 147                          |
| 12          | Philippines                      | 131                          |
| 13          | Viet Nam                         | 127                          |
| 14          | Russian Federation               | 121                          |
| 15          | Iran (Islamic Republic of)       | 115                          |
| 16          | Egypt                            | 115                          |
| 17          | Japan                            | 105                          |
| 18          | Turkey                           | 101                          |

Source: Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 1998 Revision* (United Nations publication, forthcoming).

8. Since 1970–1975, world total fertility has declined by 39 per cent from 4.5 births per woman to the current level of 2.7 births per woman. In the less developed regions, women are currently having more than two fewer children than women did three decades ago. The average number of births per woman in the less developed regions declined by 45 per cent from 5.4 during 1970–1975 to 3.0 in 1995–2000. In the more developed regions, fertility declined from 2.1 births per woman during 1970–1975 to a historical low of 1.6 for the current period, 1995–2000. Even though fertility has declined to relatively moderate levels in many developing countries, and to below replacement level in some, a large and growing number of live births are occurring annually, owing to the continued growth in the number of women of childbearing age, a legacy of past high fertility levels. In the less developed regions, the average number of births per year was 104 million in 1970–1975; the annual number has grown to 117 million births today.

9. Variations in fertility among the major areas of the world persist. Total fertility rates range from 1.4 and 1.9 births per woman in Europe and Northern America respectively, to 5.1 in Africa. Rates for Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean fall in between at 2.6 and 2.7 births per woman respectively. Analysis of trends in fertility for 184 countries shows that in 1970–1975, 79 countries exhibited fertility levels greater than six children per woman, whereas 16 countries had fertility below the replacement level of 2.1 births per woman. By 1995–2000, the number of high fertility countries was down to 20 and the number below replacement had increased to 58, demonstrating a shift towards lower fertility in all parts of the world (see table 2). Indeed, the data show that as many as 60 countries began their fertility transition as of 1970–1975; nearly half the countries (28) being in Africa, 19 in Asia and 9 in Latin America and the Caribbean. Even among countries that exhibited low fertility 30 years ago, rates have continued to decline. In 22 countries of Europe and Northern America, the current fertility rate is 1.5 births per woman or below. Bulgaria, Italy, the Czech Republic, Romania and Spain have an average of just 1.2 births per woman in 1995–2000, while in the Russian Federation, Germany, Estonia, Greece, Slovenia and Latvia the average total fertility rate is 1.3 births per woman. Fertility, nevertheless, remains high in many countries. For example, total fertility is still above 6.5 births per woman in 10 countries or areas, namely, Afghanistan, Angola, Burkina Faso, the Gaza Strip, Malawi, Mali, the Niger, Somalia, Uganda and Yemen.

10. Even though there is broad agreement about conditions that favour the onset of the fertility transition, there is no consensus regarding specific conditions that need to be present for the transition to begin. In countries where fertility has started to decline, a significant increase in contraceptive prevalence was an important contributing factor. Other factors associated with fertility decline include a decline in levels of child mortality, increased levels of education among women, increased urbanization and increases in age at marriage. However, each of these principal factors does not always autonomously lead to fertility decline, nor are these factors always collectively associated with changes in fertility levels. In the post-transition countries, where fertility is increasingly becoming lower, increased status of women appears to be one of the important determinants of continued low fertility.

**Table 2**  
**Distribution of countries according to level of total fertility rate in**  
**1970-1975 and 1995-2000 by major area**

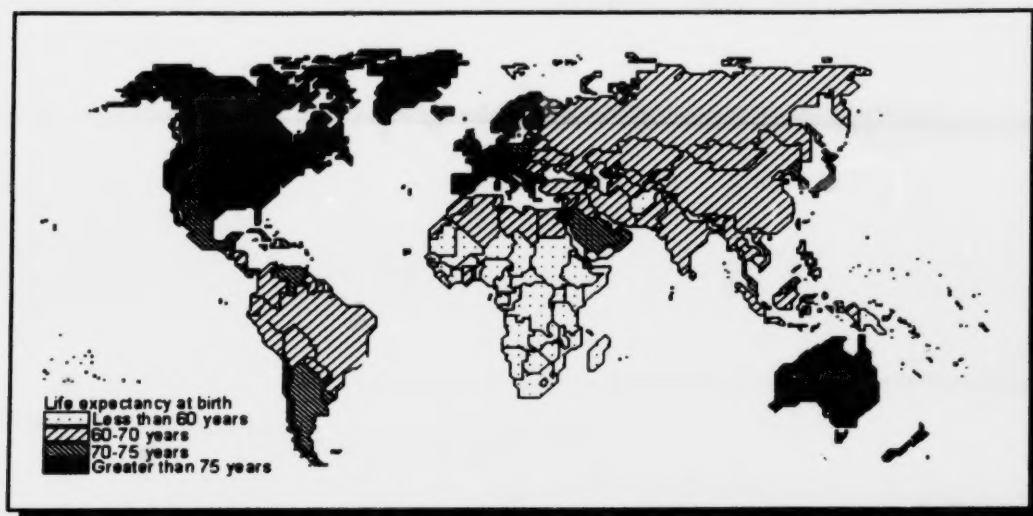
| Total fertility rate | Africa | Asia | Latin America<br>and the<br>Caribbean | Oceania | Europe and<br>Northern<br>America | Total |
|----------------------|--------|------|---------------------------------------|---------|-----------------------------------|-------|
| <i>1970-1975</i>     |        |      |                                       |         |                                   |       |
| 6.0 and over         | 44     | 22   | 9                                     | 4       | 0                                 | 79    |
| 5.0-5.9              | 5      | 13   | 6                                     | 1       | 0                                 | 25    |
| 4.0-4.9              | 2      | 6    | 7                                     | 3       | 1                                 | 19    |
| 3.0-3.9              | 2      | 4    | 7                                     | 0       | 2                                 | 15    |
| 2.1-2.9              | 0      | 5    | 2                                     | 2       | 21                                | 30    |
| Less than 2.1        | 0      | 0    | 0                                     | 0       | 16                                | 16    |
|                      | 53     | 50   | 31                                    | 10      | 40                                | 184   |
| <i>1995-2000</i>     |        |      |                                       |         |                                   |       |
| 6.0 and over         | 17     | 3    | 0                                     | 0       | 0                                 | 20    |
| 5.0-5.9              | 17     | 7    | 0                                     | 0       | 0                                 | 24    |
| 4.0-4.9              | 9      | 6    | 6                                     | 4       | 0                                 | 25    |
| 3.0-3.9              | 7      | 9    | 5                                     | 1       | 0                                 | 22    |
| 2.1-2.9              | 2      | 13   | 15                                    | 3       | 2                                 | 35    |
| Less than 2.1        | 1      | 12   | 5                                     | 2       | 38                                | 58    |
|                      | 53     | 50   | 31                                    | 10      | 40                                | 184   |

Source: Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 1998 Revision* (United Nations publication, forthcoming).

11. At the global level, the continuing progress in the reduction of mortality is revealed in the increase in the level of life expectancy at birth from 58 years prior to the 1974 United Nations World Population Conference in Bucharest to 65 years today (see figure II). Simultaneously infant mortality has declined from 93 deaths per 1,000 live births to 57 today. The Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development<sup>1</sup> stipulates that life expectancy at birth should universally exceed 70 years (65 years in countries with the highest levels of mortality) by the year 2005. Should the mortality assumptions of *The 1998 Revision* of the United Nations population estimates and projections hold, by 2005 life expectancy would still be lower than the Programme of Action goal in 72 countries. In 54 countries with a combined population of 870 million, life expectancy would not have reached the level of 65 years.

12. The causes of recent national mortality trends include a large array of factors. The medical and hygienic interventions to combat or prevent infectious and parasitic diseases were largely responsible for the rapid decreases in communicable diseases and ensuing mortality declines, especially among children, that many developing countries had experienced since the 1960s. However, the war against communicable diseases is not yet won. Globally, infectious and parasitic diseases, respiratory infections, malnutrition, and maternal and neonatal mortality account for more than 40 per cent of all deaths.

Figure II  
Life expectancy at birth, 1995–2000 (both sexes)



Source: Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 1998 Revision* (United Nations, New York, forthcoming).

Note: Estimates are not presented for countries or areas with population under 150,000.

13. Recent years have shown a devastating toll from AIDS in a number of countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. In 29 hard-hit African countries, life expectancy at birth is currently seven years less than would have been expected in the absence of AIDS. In the nine countries with an adult human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) prevalence of 10 per cent or more, life expectancy is, on average, 10 years less than it would have been in the absence of HIV. Yet, the demographic impact of HIV/AIDS is expected to intensify in the future. For example, by 2010–2015, these nine countries will lose 16 years of expected life expectancy to AIDS.

14. Botswana is the hardest-hit country: one of every four adults is infected by HIV. Life expectancy at birth has dropped from 61 years in 1990–1995 to 47 years in 1995–2000. Owing to the impact of AIDS, life expectancy is projected to further fall to 41 years by 2000–2005. In Zimbabwe, the second hardest-hit country, one of every five adults is infected. Life expectancy at birth fell to 52 years in 1990–1995 and is projected to further decrease to 44 years in 1995–2000 and 41 years in 2000–2005. The South African epidemic began later than in Zimbabwe. One of every eight adults was infected by the virus in 1997. Owing to the later start, the demographic impact is yet to come. In 1990–1995, life expectancy at birth (estimated at 59 years) was barely affected by HIV/AIDS. However, projections show that by 2005–2010, life expectancy at birth will fall to under 45 years.

15. Decreasing mortality from cardiovascular diseases and neoplasms in many of the more developed countries during the last decades was made possible by advances in medical treatment and beneficial changes in lifestyles. However, some of the countries of Eastern Europe have been experiencing a stagnation of mortality improvement and even declines in national life expectancies. Mortality in these countries has been particularly high among adult males, owing to non-communicable diseases, accidents, injuries and violent deaths.

16. During the twentieth century, the contribution of net migration to population growth has been of minor demographic importance for most countries, especially those where natural increase has been high. However, the marked reduction of fertility experienced by a growing number of countries over the past three decades means that the role of international migration in determining population growth has been rising. For developed countries in particular, the low levels of fertility that have prevailed over recent periods means that moderate or even low levels of international migration have had a significant impact on population growth. Estimates derived from *The 1998 Revision* of the United Nations population estimates and projections indicate that during 1970–1995 the Western market economy countries absorbed 35 million migrants in net terms and that such net migration accounted for 28 per cent of their combined population growth. In contrast, the loss of those 35 million migrants reduced population growth in the rest of the world by under 2 per cent.

17. Net migration for most countries accounted for a low percentage of natural increase: in 54 per cent of all countries, net migration increased or decreased natural increase by 12 per cent or less. However, in 15 countries net migration reduced natural increase by four fifths or more, and in 24 countries net migration raised natural increase by a third or more. Countries or areas where net migration contributed to raising population growth by a sizeable percentage of natural increase were of two types: (a) countries with relatively small populations and moderate to high rates of natural increase; and (b) countries with very low rates of natural increase. Both types tend to be characterized by having fostered the admission of international migrants since 1970. They include the main traditional countries of immigration and many of the European market economy countries and the oil exporting countries of Western Asia.

18. It has been suggested that emigration tends to be higher where population growth rates are high. A comparison of natural increase and net migration by country indicates that the relation between the two may not be simple. The data show that although at very low levels of natural increase (below 0.5 per cent) countries appear more likely to experience immigration rather than emigration, at high levels of natural increase (above 2 per cent), there are numerous countries experiencing both net immigration and emigration. The analysis suggests that rapid rates of population growth do not on their own necessarily lead to increased emigration.

19. Continued high rates of population growth remain an issue of policy concern for many countries of the world, although fewer countries are now expressing a concern than at the time of the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development. In fact, in response to low levels of fertility in a growing number of countries, and the social and economic consequences of the resultant population ageing, more countries are expressing concern about their low rates of population growth. The proportion of Governments that consider their rate of population growth to be too high declined from 44 per cent in 1993 to 41 per cent in 1998. In parallel, the proportion of Governments perceiving their growth rate to be too low increased from 11 per cent in 1993 to 14 per cent in 1998 (see table 3).

**Table 3**  
**Governments' views on population growth rate, 1974–1998**  
 (Percentage of countries)

| <i>Year</i> | <i>Too high</i> | <i>Satisfactory</i> | <i>Too low</i> | <i>Total</i> | <i>Total number of countries</i> |
|-------------|-----------------|---------------------|----------------|--------------|----------------------------------|
| 1974        | 27.6            | 47.4                | 25.0           | 100.0        | 156                              |
| 1983        | 36.3            | 45.2                | 18.5           | 100.0        | 168                              |
| 1993        | 43.7            | 45.3                | 11.0           | 100.0        | 190                              |
| 1998        | 41.1            | 44.4                | 14.5           | 100.0        | 180                              |

*Source:* The Population Policy Data Bank maintained by the Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat.

20. Most of the countries that express the view that their rates of population growth are too high are in the less developed regions. Countries that view their population growth as satisfactory include most of the developed countries, as well as a majority of countries in South America and a few countries in Africa and Western Asia. Countries that view their population growth as too low are located primarily in Eastern Europe and Western Asia, with a small number scattered in other regions. In 1998, the greatest shift in views with regard to population growth occurred among the countries of the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) and in Eastern Europe. Many of these countries considered their population growth to be satisfactory in 1993 but by 1998 had shifted to the view of considering their population growth rates to be too low.

21. The proportion of Governments that have policies aimed at influencing population growth increased from 45 per cent in 1974 to 63 per cent in 1993. By 1998, this proportion had declined to 56 per cent. Seventy Governments (39 per cent) have policies aimed at lowering population growth while 18 (10 per cent) have policies aimed at increasing population growth. In developing countries, during the 15-year period from 1983 to 1998, the proportion of Governments intervening to influence population growth increased from 58 to 65 per cent. The proportion of Governments of developed countries intervening to influence population growth declined between 1983 and 1998 because a number of countries with policies to maintain or increase the rate of population growth shifted to a policy of non-intervention.

22. In Africa, an increasing number of countries are adopting population policies and intensifying efforts to reduce population growth. Likewise, in Asia, a significant number of countries consider their population growth rates to be too high. In contrast, all countries of Eastern Asia view their population growth rates as satisfactory, except China which despite impressive results in reducing population growth has resumed viewing its population growth rate as too high. A number of countries in South-central Asia that earlier viewed the population growth rate as satisfactory, in 1998 perceived it as too low and changed their policy of maintaining the growth rate to a policy of raising it. Of the 16 Governments of Western Asia whose views regarding population growth were known, six consider their growth rate to be too low and have a policy to increase it. In Latin America and the Caribbean, an increasing number of countries (62 per cent) consider their population growth rates to be satisfactory. A majority of the small, densely populated countries in the Caribbean, and three countries in Central America, consider population growth to be too high, whereas almost all countries in South America consider it to be satisfactory.

23. In Europe, an increasing number of countries are concerned with issues of declining fertility, declining population and ageing. In 1998, of the nine Governments of Eastern

Europe whose views regarding population growth were known, seven considered it to be too low. Many of these Governments inaugurated policies to alter the current demographic situation and to increase population growth. Among the 24 countries of Europe that already responded to the Eighth United Nations Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development, 9 (38 per cent) indicated that their goal was to raise fertility. In Oceania, both Australia and New Zealand remain satisfied with their population growth rates.

## II. Changing population age structures

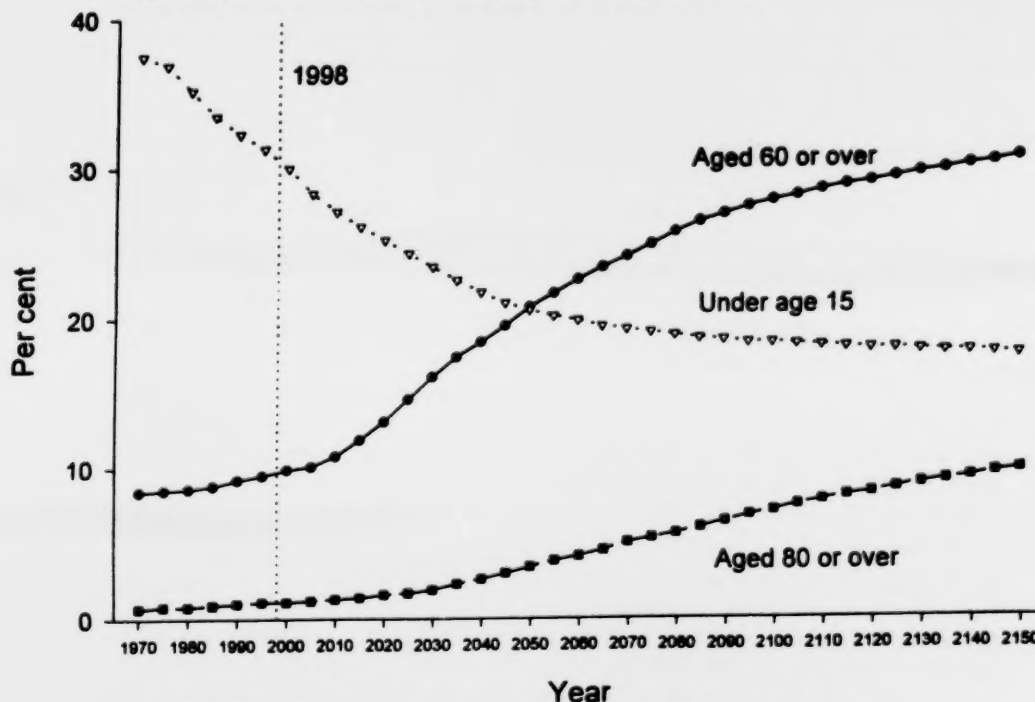
24. An inevitable consequence of the demographic transition and the shift to lower fertility and mortality has been the evolution in population age structure. Developed countries have attained older age structures than were ever seen in the past, while developing countries are undergoing rapid shifts in respect of the share of children, youth and adults.

25. The world child population, that is to say, those under age 15, is 1.8 billion in 1998. Between 1970 and 1998, the child population increased from 1.4 billion to 1.8 billion. Children make up 19 per cent of the population of more developed regions and 33 per cent of that of less developed regions. Ages 15–24 represent a transition from childhood to adulthood. Rapid growth in the number of young people means rapid growth in the demand for secondary and higher education, jobs and housing. World youth numbered 1 billion in 1998, almost 60 per cent more than in 1970, and by 2050, youth are projected to number 1.3 billion.

26. Although the world population of older persons is considerably smaller than the child population, it is growing at a much faster rate (see figure III). In 1998, there were 580 million persons aged 60 years or over in the world, constituting 10 per cent of the world population. By 2050, this figure will triple to nearly 2 billion, when it will be larger than the child population. The older population is increasing at a substantially faster rate in the less developed than the more developed regions. The oldest old, persons aged 80 years or over, are the fastest growing segment of the older population. By 2050, the number of oldest old is projected to be 5.6 times larger than at present (66 million) and will constitute 4 per cent of the world population. In more developed regions, 1 person in 11 will be aged 80 years or over. The “oldest” country in the world in 1998 was Italy, with 1.6 persons aged 60 years or over for each person under age 15, followed by Greece, Japan, Spain, Germany. By 2050, the oldest country will be Spain with 3.6 persons, aged 60 years or over for each person under age 15. Uganda is the world’s youngest country, with 1 in every 31 persons aged 60 years or over in 1998.

27. The regional composition of the older population is very different from that of the child population. In 1998, more developed regions contained about two fifths of the world’s older people, but only one out of every eight children. By 2050, more developed regions will contain less than one fifth of the world’s older persons. A further contrast is that during 2040–2050, the older population will still be growing at an annual rate exceeding 1.7 per cent — and the population aged 80 years or over will be growing by more than 3 per cent per year. By that time, the youth and child populations will have near-zero growth rates. By 2150, persons aged 60 years or over will number 3.3 billion, representing nearly one out of every three persons. One in every 10 persons will be aged 80 years or over. Only 18 per cent of the population will be under age 15. At older ages, women outnumber men. At ages 60 years or over, there were 81 men for every 100 women globally in 1998, and at ages 80 years or over, there were only 53 men for every 100 women.

Figure III  
Percentage of the world population under age 15, aged 60 years or over and aged 80 years or over, 1970–2050, medium fertility variant



Source: Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations Secretariat. *World Population Prospects: The 1998 Revision* (United Nations, New York, forthcoming).

28. Changing age structure is likely to have wide-ranging economic and social consequences through such factors as economic growth, savings and investment, labour supply and employment, pension schemes, health and long-term care, intergenerational transfers, family composition and living arrangements. While once limited to developed countries, concern for ageing's consequences has spread to developing countries.

29. Because savings fuel economic growth, the relation between savings and ageing is an important policy issue. Savings rates peak at the end of working life and fall in retirement; however, the importance of this pattern for economic performance is unclear. Ageing's effects are transmitted through three channels: shrinking labour force, reduced household savings, and increased government pension and health expenditures. Evidence suggests that East Asia's rapid income growth is in part attributable to the rising share of the working age population. The shrinking share of youth led to fewer expenditures on children, inducing higher savings and investment. The studies show that favourable demographic trends are not, however, in themselves sufficient to promote economic growth. Rather, a growing labour force combined with flexible labour markets, human capital investment and successful export promotion has generated employment.

30. Demographic change is also an important determinant of labour supply. In Europe, the working age population is growing faster than total population, and this, accompanied

by increasing female labour participation and weak employment generation, has produced persistently high unemployment. Another feature is the unprecedented withdrawal of older men from the workforce. Declining participation is due, at least in part, to improved pension benefits and the easing of eligibility for claiming disability benefits and pensions.

31. Sparked by the difficulty in sustaining pension systems, alternatives to the traditional pay-as-you-go schemes, in which current workers pay the benefits of current retirees, are being examined. These debates are framed against a broader context of redefining Governments' role in ensuring a minimum income for older persons and have ushered in innovation and experimentation, particularly as concerns privatization. Faced with insolvency, some countries are bolstering the schemes' viability by raising the retirement age. In Latin America, countries are restructuring by adopting schemes that combine pay-as-you-go and privatized mandatory savings plans.

32. Changing age structure also poses challenges in the health and long-term care sector. These expenditures are concentrated among older populations, especially the oldest old. Spurred by the significant increase in the oldest old, expenditures for their care have risen dramatically, leading to the implementation of major reforms. Many of these measures aim for cost containment, by expanding the number of nursing homes, as an alternative to hospital-based services, and providing day care and respite care to enable older persons to remain in their own homes.

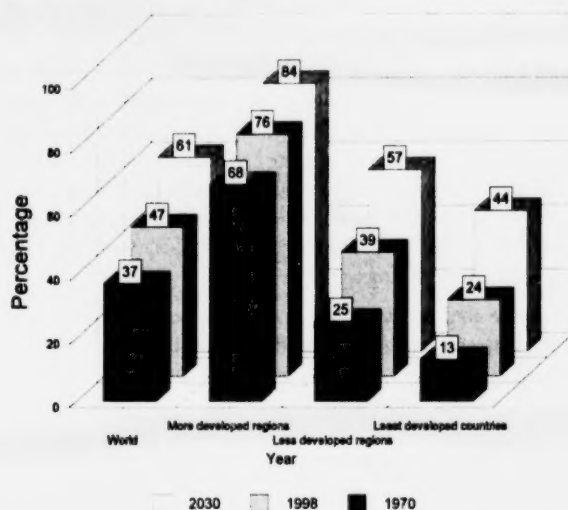
33. The convergence of demographic and other trends is resulting in smaller households. While gains in life expectancy imply a greater potential for co-residence, the percentage of older persons living with a child is rapidly decreasing in developed countries. In developing countries, the dominant living arrangement continues to be co-residence. With declining fertility and fewer caregivers, the tendency is one of weakening family support for older persons in developed and some developing countries, increasing strains on formal support. Most countries, especially in developing regions, rely almost exclusively on the extended family — usually women — to care for older persons. Working women are disadvantaged, as they often have the triple responsibility of working, child-rearing and caregiving to ageing parents. Some countries are strengthening informal support by providing low-cost "granny flats" or according public housing priority to adult children living with parents.

34. Changes in age distribution have complex implications. An important issue is the allocation of limited public resources. Accordingly, planning requires sensitivity to demographic changes. As developed countries have shown, despite prolonged ageing, adjustment to ageing is not smooth. Given that large shifts in age structure are being compressed into a short period in developing countries, these countries will have less time than developed countries to adapt to changing age structure.

### **III. Population distribution, urbanization and internal migration**

35. A major transformation during the twentieth century has been that entailing the growth of urban centres and the concentration of population in urban areas. Throughout human history, the world has been primarily rural. However, this situation will change in the near future owing to the more rapid growth of urban areas. As of mid-1998, 47 per cent of the world population lived in urban areas (see figure IV). This urban population is growing three times faster than its rural counterpart. As a result, half of the world population is expected to be urban by 2006. Approximately three fifths will be living in urban areas by 2030.

Figure IV  
Percentage of population residing in urban areas, 1970, 1998 and 2030



Source: Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs at the United Nations Secretariat. *World Urbanization Prospects: The 1996 Revision* (United Nations, New York, 1998).

36. The urban population is growing at a rate of 2.3 per cent per year. Rural-urban migration accounts for about 40 per cent of urban growth. The urban growth rate is expected to decline to reach 1.6 per cent per annum by 2025–2030. In spite of the declining urban population growth rate, the average annual increment of the world's urban population is steadily becoming larger. The annual increment during the period 1970–1998 was 50 million inhabitants, and it is projected at 74 million between 1998 and 2030.

37. The ratio of men to women is much higher in urban areas than in rural ones in all regions of Africa (except for Northern Africa), as well as in Southern Asia and Western Asia, reflecting the predominance of male migrants in cities. In Northern Africa, Eastern Asia and South-eastern Asia, the sex ratios were nearly the same in urban and in rural areas, showing no gender difference in urbanization. In all the regions of Latin America and the Caribbean, as well as in all the more developed regions, the ratios of men to women indicate higher urbanization among the women than among the men.

38. The proportion of urban dwellers living in the agglomerations of 10 million or more increased from 3 to 7 per cent between 1970 and 1995, and is expected to reach 11 per cent by 2015. These giant urban agglomerations, a recent phenomenon, are becoming both larger and more numerous. The largest cities in the world in 1998 were Tokyo, with a population of 28 million, Mexico City (18 million) and São Paulo (17 million). By 2015, Lagos will be the third largest urban agglomeration in the world (25 million), after Tokyo (29 million) and Bombay (26 million).

39. Between 1970 and 1998, the number of cities with 10 million or more inhabitants grew from 3 to 18. Of the 18 cities with 10 million or more inhabitants in 1998, 2 are in Africa (Lagos and Cairo), 4 in Latin America and the Caribbean, 2 in Northern America and 10 in Asia. It is projected that by 2015, 26 cities will have a population of 10 million or more (2 in Northern America, 2 in Africa, 18 in Asia and 4 in Latin America and the Caribbean).

However, half of the world urban population still lives in smaller cities with fewer than 500,000 inhabitants.

40. The urbanization trends experienced by developed countries until the 1950s suggested that the increasing concentration of the urban population in ever larger urban centres was a natural concomitant of the rising proportion of people living in urban areas. However, between 1965 and 1985, a tendency towards "counterurbanization", a process whereby larger metropolitan areas lost population in relative terms to smaller urban centres, was noticed in a number of developed countries. Despite the expectation that the shift away from population concentration in the larger metropolitan areas to that in medium-sized and small settlements would accelerate during the 1980s, recent evidence has failed to corroborate such a trend and suggests that the tendency towards population concentration in the larger urban places has returned. The most significant reversal seems to have taken place in the United States during the 1980s, though there is also evidence that the growth rates of Paris, London and elsewhere have increased in recent years.

41. The movement of people from rural to urban areas is only one of the possible forms of internal migration. In fact, despite the emphasis generally placed on it, rural-urban migration does not account for the largest proportion of internal migrants. In countries, such as Ethiopia, India and Thailand, that are still largely rural, rural-rural migration is more important, whereas in countries that are highly urbanized, urban-urban migration dominates (as in Brunei Darussalam, the Republic of Korea in the 1990s, Brazil and Peru); that is to say, although rural-urban migration and its counterpart, urban-rural migration, contribute to the redistribution of population between urban and rural areas, at certain stages of the urbanization process the other types of migration (rural-rural and urban-urban) may be more important in the redistribution of population within each geographical stratum.

42. The participation of women varies by type of flow. In Egypt, India and Pakistan, for instance, the participation of women tends to be more marked in flows directed towards rural areas, especially in rural-rural migration. In contrast, in the Philippines, Thailand, Brazil and Honduras, the participation of women has been considerably more marked among flows directed to urban areas, be they rural-urban or urban-urban. Furthermore, women have tended to outnumber men by wide margins in all those flows. The participation of women in overall internal migration (without distinction as to type of flow) varies considerably from region to region. Among 15 countries with the required data, women account for at least 43 per cent of internal migrants and, as is indicated above, women outnumber men among internal migrants in Latin America and the Caribbean. In addition, the share of women in internal migration in Cape Verde and Ethiopia is above 50 per cent, and in Nepal, Thailand and Zimbabwe it varies between 49 and 50 per cent.

43. In 1998, 44 per cent of Governments considered their patterns of population distribution to be a major concern (see table 4). Another 29 per cent saw their patterns of population distribution to be a minor concern. In many developing countries, population distribution policies are largely synonymous with measures to reduce or even to attempt to reverse rural-urban migration, with the aim of controlling the growth of the primate city or other large metropolitan areas. Evidence indicates that these policies have not always been effective. Partially in response, many countries have adopted strong rural-oriented spatial policies.

44. Most African countries continue to be greatly concerned with reducing out-migration from rural areas. Thus, Africa has consistently been the region where Governments are most dissatisfied with their patterns of population distribution. In 1998, 63 per cent of the Governments in Africa considered their patterns of population distribution to be a major concern. Another 25 per cent saw population distribution as a minor concern. Only 12 per

cent considered their patterns of population distribution to be satisfactory. Since the early 1960s, Asian countries have expressed strong dissatisfaction with patterns of population distribution. As of 1998, only 20 per cent of Asian countries considered their patterns of population distribution to be satisfactory; 43 per cent viewed it as a major concern, and 37 per cent considered it to be a minor concern. The countries of Latin America and the Caribbean also considered their patterns of population distribution to be a concern. In 1998, just under half of countries in the region viewed population distribution as a major concern and 21 per cent as a minor concern. Europe has the highest proportion of Governments that consider their patterns of population distribution to be satisfactory — 49 per cent in 1998. Thirty-one per cent of Governments report that they saw population distribution as a major concern, and 20 per cent as a minor concern.

**Table 4**  
**Governments' views on spatial distribution, 1998**  
(Number of countries)

| By level of development                  | View         |                      |                      | Total |
|------------------------------------------|--------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------|
|                                          | Satisfactory | Minor change desired | Major change desired |       |
| World .....                              | 49           | 52                   | 78                   | 179   |
| More developed regions .....             | 21           | 14                   | 9                    | 44    |
| Less developed regions .....             | 28           | 38                   | 69                   | 135   |
| Of which least developed countries ..... | 6            | 12                   | 29                   | 47    |

Source: Population Policy Data Bank maintained by the Population Division of the United Nations Secretariat; *National Population Policies* (United Nations publication, forthcoming).

45. Whereas many Governments throughout the developing world have strongly endorsed the concept of promoting small and medium-sized cities, how to go about it is far less clear. A number of Governments have also in recent years adopted policies that seek to work alongside market forces — by channelling private investment to designated areas, providing infrastructure in under-served areas or removing subsidies that previously favoured the residents of certain locations such as the national capital. The idea behind this approach is to create a “level playing field” whereby a number of areas of a country are equally attractive to potential migrants. Megacity size per se may not always be a critical policy variable. The key challenge is to efficiently manage megacity growth. Management of urban growth becomes more important as the integration of the world economy and the expansion of international trade and investment change the bases of urban economic growth in the twenty-first century.

#### **IV. Population growth, poverty, food provision and the environment**

46. Debates surrounding the consequences of population growth for the pace of economic development are both vigorous and contentious. Recent decades have witnessed major swings in thinking about population and development interrelationships. In general, the impacts of rapid population growth have been judged to vary considerably by country and over time, and have been considered to be relatively small by comparison with other determinants of economic prosperity. Nevertheless, there is a general view that the rapid

population growth of many developing countries makes it more difficult for these countries to achieve improvements in their standard of living.

47. There are arguments to suggest that, as fertility declines and the proportion of the population in the economically most productive ages rises, resources thereby freed from care for a larger child population can be productively directed to increased labour force participation (especially of women) and increased investment in both physical and human capital, thereby speeding economic development. An influential study by the United States of America's National Research Council, in 1986, reached the "... qualitative conclusion that slower population growth would be beneficial to the economic development of developing countries". This effect has been termed the "demographic bonus" (or the "economic gift") from declining fertility.

48. The importance of this effect was called into question, however, since more than a dozen studies using cross-country data for the 1960s and 1970s failed to unearth a statistically significant association between the growth rates of population and per capita output. However, recent assessments have revealed fairly large, economically important negative correlations between population change and per capita output growth based on data for the 1980s or later and for the entire period from the 1960s through the early 1990s. The negative effect of high fertility on economic growth also appears greater for poorer countries. Results also indicate that declining fertility may contribute to reductions in poverty.

49. Recent studies have gone beyond merely relating economic and population growth rates by examining separately different components or aspects of population change, which can have effects that tend to cancel out when only the total rate of population growth is studied. The studies have focused especially on (a) age-distributional changes as emphasized in life-cycle modelling by economists and (b) demographic components modelling (births, deaths, migrants) as emphasized by demographers and policy analysts. These decompositions reveal reasonably strong impacts of specific aspects of demographic change, even in cases where the overall effect of population growth appears nil. Such results show how a near-zero correlation between population and economic growth rates can conceal, during a historical period, important offsetting effects of the components of population change.

50. At present, this is an area of active research work, where models and results are still emerging. While it is clear that the demographic factors remain important when other variables commonly employed to understand economic growth cross-nationally are included in the analysis, other questions remain to be answered, including the reconciliation of the weak and inconsistent results for earlier periods with the strong results observed when more recent data are included. Has the impact of population growth changed? Is it that, until the recent period, few countries had progressed far enough through the fertility transition for the age-structural effects to become economically important? Could it be that the negative consequences of rapid population growth associated with diminishing returns to capital and the environment are emerging as relatively more important than, say, the positive impacts of scale, or induced innovation/technical change, and/or attenuating feedbacks? Are there unique features associated with economic conditions in the 1980s (a period encompassing significant structural adjustments, world recession, wars, and droughts) as well as the early 1990s (generally a period of stronger economic growth) that could account for the changed findings?

51. It is generally recognized that government policies condition the form and the size of population's impacts on the economy. Unfortunately, very little is known about how Governments react to rapid population growth, apart from policies aimed at influencing

population growth itself. The Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development reflected a consensus that slower population growth buys time for Governments to adjust. However, slowing population growth does not itself ensure that favourable policy and institutional changes will occur. The time bought by slower population growth may be squandered if needed policy changes are not made.

52. It is widely believed that the most important factor accounting for poverty is the macroeconomic environment, and especially factors that govern the growth of employment. To the extent that macroeconomic growth is adversely influenced by the pace of demographic change, then poverty will be adversely impacted by rapid population growth as well. Statistical studies of economy-wide data have not firmly established notable effects of demographic change on poverty rates. Indeed, data on poverty levels are too sparse for most countries to study this issue over time.

53. It is often noted that high fertility may be a rational strategy of poor families in response to conditions of high mortality — high fertility is needed to ensure that some children will survive to adulthood — and to a traditional, low technology economy, in which (unschooled) children can begin to contribute economically at a relatively young age. However, for most of today's poor, current conditions in the surrounding society are substantially different from those of pre-modern times, and are changing rapidly. The available evidence from direct survey questions about family size desires suggests that, in many settings, poor, rural, and uneducated parents currently want only modestly larger families than their better off counterparts. The actual difference in fertility levels between the more and less advantaged tends to be much larger than the difference in desired family size: apparently, the more advantaged groups have been more successful in achieving desired family size.

54. Even though the expansion of food available per person in developing countries has grown at an impressive pace in recent decades (from 1,900 to 2,600 calories per day), and total food production has more than doubled, the distribution of food has been uneven, and starvation and malnutrition are still pervasive, especially in Africa and parts of Asia. In the face of notable demographic pressures in the future, a comparison of population with carrying capacity estimates indicates that persistent food shortages can be avoided, as long as there are improvements in and prudent management of rural sector production. An important element in food provision is the need to reckon growing environmental costs. Deforestation constitutes the most conspicuous example of environmental change in farming. Studies across many countries and ecological settings reveal a positive correlation between deforestation and population growth. The strength of these correlations varies substantially between settings and depends on factors such as access to and ownership of land, restrictions on foresting, the relative economic attractiveness of using intensive versus extensive cultivation techniques (strongly influenced by land tenure and government policies) and the like.

55. Many Governments view their population size, growth or distribution as a cause for concern in relation to environmental problems. Water pollution, the amount of fresh water and deterioration of the urban environment are areas over which serious concern has often been expressed regarding population's impacts. Rarely do Governments seek a solution to environmental problems solely through altering population trends or distribution. In many cases, though, Governments report a policy approach that combines measures to affect population trends or distribution with other approaches to alleviating environmental problems.

56. Given the nature of environmental resources, enlightened government policies are critical to population-environmental interactions. Because market and policy failures may

be extensive, seemingly adverse impacts of population growth can be high, although slowing population growth may not halt environmental decay, and the impacts in many settings may in reality be relatively small. This is because, without Government policies that correct market failures and provide appropriate incentives for individual/firm behaviours, environmental degradation will continue, albeit at a reduced pace; and the possibility of increased economic prosperity associated with reduced population growth can itself carry with it pressures on the environment. Thus, the impacts of demographic change can best be viewed as "amplifying" the impacts deriving from the more fundamental causes of environmental degradation.

57. In summary, poverty reduction, food provision and environmental maintenance are integrally linked with demographic, economic and political change. "Vicious circles" of cumulatively worsening performance in each of the latter two dimensions may be exacerbated by rapid population growth. Breaking this interacting web can be facilitated by government policies that promote income growth, empower the poor with education and health, and provide incentives to behave prudently in the allocation of resources. Such policies can lead to "virtuous circles" of cumulatively improving performance in all three dimensions. In such a situation, children are less likely to be seen as producing agents, women's and men's roles change, and the demand for reproductive health services increases. Economic and demographic change are mutually interacting forces influenced by institutional settings and government policy. As a result, population policies are an important element of the policy-making components needed to advance social and economic development, eliminate poverty and foster long run environmental stewardship.

#### *Notes*

<sup>1</sup> *Report of the International Conference on Population and Development, Cairo, 5-13 September 1994* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.95.XIII.18), chap. I, resolution 1, annex.

## **Annex**

### **Data collection, data availability and data quality**

1. Knowledge of demographic change and its interrelationships with aspects of development needs to be based on timely and high quality data. The principal data-collection systems for demographic and social information are population censuses, sample surveys and civil registration systems. These systems have provided the primary means for measuring basic demographic parameters such as size and growth of population, components of growth and vital rates. Although international migration is an important source of demographic change, statistics on immigration and emigration are not available for many countries on a regular basis.

2. Population censuses remain the most important source of key demographic information at all geographical levels for planning and implementation of development programmes. In the 1990 census decade, 200 countries and areas carried out their censuses, representing a 95 per cent coverage of the world's population. The challenge countries are facing for the 2000 round is how to mobilize resources to conduct future population censuses and to look beyond the traditional sources of financing census activities by involving all sectors of civil society.

3. Sample surveys are an important tool for obtaining detailed demographic and social data, particularly with respect to fertility and mortality. However, surveys normally cannot provide data at small geographical levels and, therefore, are not a substitute for censuses. Nonetheless, because of the smaller scale, surveys have greater depth than a census, tend to employ better qualified and better trained enumerators than censuses do and, for fertility and mortality data, are generally found to be relatively more reliable than the census. When a complete and reliable civil registration system exists in a country, it is the ideal source of levels and patterns of fertility, mortality and nuptiality used to monitor population growth and assess the health situation of the population including maternal, child and infant death for the country as a whole, and its regions, subregions and communities. The main advantages of civil registration are its continuity, its permanency and its country-wide scope. Unfortunately, in many developing countries registration is either weak or almost entirely lacking.

4. Over the years, national statistical systems have improved considerably but there is still much to be done to institutionalize the gains. Data collection, processing and dissemination technologies are changing rapidly. Statistically less developed countries are lagging behind in respect of keeping pace with these rapid changes. Besides, data-collection costs are rising rapidly and countries are finding it difficult to collect and disseminate data on a regular basis.

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**Economic and Social Council**

Distr.: General  
22 December 1998

Original: English

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**Commission on Population and Development****Thirty-second session**

22-24 March 1999

Item 3 of the provisional agenda\*

**Follow-up actions to the recommendations of the International  
Conference on Population and Development**

**Report of the Technical Symposium on International  
Migration and Development of the Administrative Committee  
on Coordination (ACC) Task Force on Basic Social Services  
for All**

**Report of the Secretary-General**

*Summary*

The Commission on Population and Development, in its resolution 1997/1, took note with interest of the holding of a technical symposium of experts on international migration under the auspices of the Working Group on International Migration of the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC) Task Force on Basic Social Services for All and requested the Chairperson of that Task Force to report back to the Commission at its thirty-second session in 1999. The present report responds to that request. It summarizes the deliberations that took place during the Technical Symposium on International Migration and Development, which was held in The Hague, the Netherlands, from 29 June to 3 July 1998.

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\* E/CN.9/1999/1.



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## Introduction

1. The Technical Symposium on International Migration and Development was held in The Hague, the Netherlands, from 29 June to 3 July 1998. It was organized by the United Nations Working Group on International Migration of the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC) Task Force on Basic Social Services for All as part of the follow-up activities for the implementation of the recommendations adopted at the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994), the World Summit for Social Development (Copenhagen, 1995) and the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995). The Government of the Netherlands hosted the Symposium, which was held at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands. The Governments of Austria, Norway and the Netherlands provided financial support. The Symposium was attended by 49 invited experts from 33 countries; representatives of the organizations and agencies organizing the Symposium, namely the United Nations Secretariat (the Population Division, the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) and the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the International Organization for Migration (IOM); representatives of other intergovernmental organizations; representatives of the host country, the Netherlands; representatives of non-governmental organizations; and scholars from universities and research institutes in the Netherlands and other countries. The Symposium was chaired by Dirk van de Kaa (Netherlands) and Stephen Castles (Australia) served as Rapporteur. High-level representatives of the organizing agencies addressed the opening session, which was highlighted by a keynote address delivered by a senior official of the Netherlands Government.

2. The Symposium examined salient policy issues on international migration and development; considered ways of improving knowledge on the causes of migration; and assessed the effectiveness of migration policies and related measures at the country level. With respect to migration for employment, the Symposium discussed the problems arising from the irregular employment of international migrants and provided insights about the effectiveness of measures taken by countries of origin to protect their migrant workers abroad. The social and cultural situation of long-term migrants in a variety of contexts was analysed and measures

to prevent their marginalization were assessed. Recognizing the importance of return migration, the Symposium examined its implications for the development of countries of origin and the problems posed by large and unexpected return flows. Lastly, the Symposium devoted particular attention to forced migration and the changing responses to it in the various world regions. By covering such a variety of issues and paying particular attention to the assessment of migration policy, the Symposium made a significant contribution to the review and appraisal process of the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development.<sup>1</sup> A total of 30 substantive papers were presented to the Symposium, including various country case studies. The annex to the present report provides a list of the papers presented. By undertaking a thorough examination of salient policy issues, the Symposium sought to advance the knowledge required for a better management of orderly migration in ways that would prove beneficial to both sending and receiving countries.

3. The Symposium underscored the fact that international migration posed major challenges to the international community, challenges made all the more daunting by the pervasiveness of negative public perceptions about international migration and the generally limited recognition of the significant contributions made by migrants to the host societies. A factor that contributed to common misapprehensions about international migration was the deficiency of international migration data.

## I. The dimensions of international migration

4. The most recent worldwide estimates of the number of international migrants, dating from 1990, indicated that there were 120 million international migrants at that time, accounting for about 2 per cent of the world's population. Between 1965 and 1990, the number of international migrants had grown at a moderate rate of 1.9 per cent a year, although the pace of growth increased between 1985 and 1990. Overall, international migrants accounted for 4.5 per cent of the population of developed countries in 1990, compared with a relatively stable 1.6 per cent for developing countries. However, international migrants tended to be unevenly concentrated in certain countries and subregions. A number of developed countries, including Germany and the United States of America, had been receiving large numbers of migrants since 1985. In the developing world, in addition to the flows of refugees in Africa and Asia, significant numbers of migrant workers had been converging

on the oil-producing countries of Western Asia since 1985, and Japan and the newly industrialized countries of the Pacific Rim became important magnets for labour migration. Furthermore, the disintegration of nation States during the aftermath of the cold war resulted in substantial population movements among the newly independent States and these movements were also directed to third countries. Female participation in international migration, while it did not increase markedly in percentage terms at the global level (the proportion rose from 47 to 48 per cent of all migrants between 1965 and 1990), became more evident in some regions and in certain types of flows.

## II. International migration and development

5. The examination of the interrelations of international migration and development suggested that the stage of development in which countries found themselves, by determining the degree of their articulation with the world economy, had a significant influence on the international migration that they experienced. The globalization of capital and trade flows as well as the emergence of regional economic cooperation mechanisms was already having an impact on migration. Moreover, there was evidence that when regional trading blocs included countries at different stages of development, economic integration was likely to stimulate migration. Thus, in the case of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) between Canada, Mexico and the United States, migration flows from Mexico to the United States were well established and had not abated since the Agreement was ratified. Furthermore, even assuming that Mexico's economy would grow at a robust pace, migration was expected to continue at moderate levels until at least 2030. Consequently, it was considered important to seek bilateral solutions to the problems such migration raised and to find ways of accommodating it. In Southern Africa, the Republic of South Africa had long been the main magnet of migration in the region, although the problems facing the country in the post-apartheid era were reducing its capacity to absorb migrant labour. The reduction in legally sanctioned labour migration to South Africa was having deleterious effects on the development prospects of neighbouring countries, many of which depended on the remittances generated by labour migration. Economic cooperation among countries in the region was being pursued through various intergovernmental organizations such as the Southern African Development Community (SADC). SADC had also attempted to coordinate efforts for the management of

international migration but with little success so far. South Africa had unilaterally taken measures to tighten its borders and reduce undocumented migration, although it still favoured the admission of migrants with needed skills. Regional cooperation on the management of international migration was considered to have serious limitations when, as in Southern Africa, countries with 40-fold income differentials had a common border.

6. The Symposium examined the extent to which such factors as poverty and environmental degradation caused South-to-North migration. An econometric analysis relating, *inter alia*, income levels and deforestation in countries of origin to their rates of emigration to developed countries showed that low income levels reduced emigration while incomes beyond a certain threshold increased emigration. In addition, growing levels of deforestation tended to increase emigration. These findings and a review of those from other studies indicated that the links between poverty or environmental degradation and international migration were complex. Because of the high costs involved in international migration, poverty generally reduced the capacity to migrate unless other factors forced people to engage in "survival migration". Environmental degradation was mainly expected to have an indirect effect on migration by affecting economic conditions which in turn could stimulate departure. However, environmental crises could be the direct cause of population movements, most of which tended to occur within State borders.

## III. Analysis of factors generating international migration

7. It was noted that the analysis of the causes of international migration was hampered by the lack of adequate data. The Symposium took note of the specialized migration surveys carried out by the Netherlands Interdisciplinary Demographic Institute (NIDI) under the auspices of the European Union (EU) to gather the data needed to assess both the proximate and the root causes of migration from developing to developed countries. The surveys, which covered both countries of origin and countries of destination, gathered comparable information on both international migrants and persons in the countries of origin who did not migrate, thus providing the ideal reference group for the analysis of the causes of migration. They also made an effort to gather information at the individual, household and community levels, thus allowing the analysis of both the micro- and macrolevel factors leading to migration. The surveys were carried out on

statistically representative samples so that their results would have the generality that many other studies lacked. The survey results were expected to be available for analysis by the end of 1998.

8. Remittances were recognized as an important mechanism through which international migration could influence development. The Symposium reviewed the high levels of remittances received by the main countries of origin and took note of efforts made to incorporate the use of remittances into a revised economic theory of migration (the "new economics of labour migration") according to which migration was seen as a means by which households could diversify risk and gain access to the capital needed for productive investment in contexts where local financial institutions could not make capital available at reasonable cost. From this perspective, remittances were expected to play a key role in improving the productive capacity of households with members abroad. To test this hypothesis, information on the allocation of the full income received by households, whether from migrants or not, was necessary. The Symposium noted that studies relative to communities with the requisite data had corroborated that remittances had a positive effect on the allocation of household income to productive activities; that is to say, remittances were indeed being used to enhance productive capacity and could therefore have a positive effect on the economic development of the communities of origin. However, the possibility that the economic environment that encouraged out-migration might also tend to limit the potential of remittances to stimulate development could not be discarded. Poor market infrastructure and lack of credit facilities made it difficult to realize the development potential of remittances. The Symposium noted that, by dealing with such constraints, countries of origin could increase the potential positive contributions of remittances to broad-based income growth.

9. The high levels of participation of women in international migration since at least 1960 were underscored by the Symposium. Growing opportunities to secure employment abroad had been responsible for increasing the visibility of female migrant workers, especially in Asia. Although the rising participation of women in labour migration implied that they had the opportunity of earning better salaries abroad, it remained true that most female migrant workers tended to be concentrated in low status occupations that provided minimal or no prospects of socio-economic mobility in the receiving State. Furthermore, women working in certain occupations, such as domestic and entertainment services, were particularly vulnerable to exploitation and harassment. In Asia, a complex set of

institutions had developed to organize and manage the migration of workers, including female workers. Aware of the risks faced by women migrating on their own to work abroad, Asian countries of origin had adopted a series of measures to protect female migrants. However, their enforcement was difficult and violations continued to occur. In developed regions, the migration of women had taken place, mostly under family reunification but this did not mean that migrant women were devoid of economic motivations for migration. In fact, the labour force participation of female migrants in developing countries was usually moderate to high despite the fact that, in certain countries, women who had been admitted as dependants did not automatically have the right to work. The risks involved in international migration notwithstanding, the Symposium considered that the migration experience had the potential of enhancing the status of female migrants and contributing to their empowerment.

10. Having noted that economic globalization had important implications for the international movement of workers, the Symposium focused on developments regarding the migration of highly skilled personnel. Such migration, which had become a major element of contemporary flows, took many forms, including the movement of professional transients, business transfers and the permanent migration of highly skilled persons. However, the data on the issue were poor, inconsistent and seldom differentiated by sex. Yet there was evidence that both developed countries and the newly industrializing economies of the developing world had been taking special measures to attract workers with needed skills. Nevertheless, there were still many instances in which receiving countries set barriers to the recognition of qualifications obtained abroad, thus preventing skilled migrants from practising the occupations for which they were best suited. There was also growing concern among developing countries about the loss of skilled personnel vital for their development. Because skilled persons tended to migrate to countries with flourishing economies, developing countries with stagnant economies had difficulty in both attracting and retaining skilled personnel. International collaboration was judged necessary to ensure that developing countries were not deprived of the skills needed to sustain development.

11. The Symposium noted that the free temporary movement of persons as service providers had been formally accepted under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)<sup>2</sup> and that labour-abundant countries might consider developing their human resources so as to enhance their service providing capabilities and thus reduce migration pressures. In addition, developing countries might consider

cooperative arrangements among themselves to develop service packages that could strengthen their position in bidding for international contracts.

#### **IV. Addressing the employment of migrants in an irregular situation**

12. Noting that many countries had been experiencing a growing informalization of their economy, the Symposium focused attention on the interrelations between irregular employment (that is to say, employment violating the standards set by labour laws and regulations) and international migration. The cases of five countries — Germany, Hungary, Italy, South Africa and Venezuela — were considered. Although irregular employment could involve national workers, foreigners had a higher propensity to take up such work because of their weak legal position and social vulnerability. Both irregular migration and the irregular employment of migrants resulted from the conflict between a real demand for unskilled workers and restrictive migration policies that banned or hindered their admission. In countries with economies in transition, the political and economic transformation that they were undergoing also contributed to the increase of irregular migration. Governments' attempts at using further regulation to reduce irregular employment had often failed and increased the vulnerability of migrants. Despite the fact that migrants taking up irregular employment were contributing to the economic prosperity of the host society, public perceptions about irregular migration were often extremely negative and were fuelling xenophobic or racist reactions. By continuing to target irregular migrants as if they were the sole source of the problem, Governments might be exacerbating the problem. To be effective, policies to combat irregular migration should take a holistic approach based on a better understanding of the economic role of the informal sector, the need for unskilled labour, and the interests of employers engaged in hiring workers under irregular conditions. Further preconditions for more effective policy formulation included improved monitoring of irregular movements and irregular employment, and more information on the employment and social situation of irregular migrants.

13. Given the continued significance of migration for employment, the Symposium examined the effectiveness of the special institutions and procedures that had been established by a number of countries of origin to protect the basic rights of their workers employed abroad. The case studies considered focused on Bangladesh, Mexico, Morocco and the Philippines. The need for protection arose because

of different circumstances in diverse settings. In some cases it was necessary because of the weak labour institutions in the countries of destination, while in others it stemmed from the irregular status of migrants in the country of employment. Exploitation of migrants when in the hands of labour recruiters and other intermediaries was also a common problem requiring State intervention. Countries of origin varied in the extent to which Governments had adopted proactive policies for the protection of migrant workers. In the Philippines, where institutional arrangements to organize and control the recruitment of migrant workers were well developed, an assessment of their efficiency as perceived by policy makers, non-governmental organizations and the migrant workers themselves was carried out. Though preliminary and still subject to methodological improvement, the study revealed that there was considerable satisfaction with the institutions and policies in place. In other countries where such institutions were either lacking or less developed, similar assessments did not seem possible. Furthermore, it was pointed out that countries of origin were often in a weak position to protect their migrants abroad, since the authorities in countries of destination generally had the power to establish conditions of work and, in case of violations, might not have the will or the means to protect the migrants involved. Countries that considered the export of labour a vital part of their economic strategies often lacked the market power or the political will to demand effective protection of their citizens as a condition for deployment. Employers keen on minimizing costs as well as recruitment agents and labour brokers required close supervision to prevent their abuse of power and the consequent mistreatment of migrants. The Symposium considered that the best framework within which to ensure the effective protection of migrant workers was a partnership between the Governments of countries of origin and those of countries of employment, since their common interest ought to be the equitable treatment of migrant workers. Countries of employment, in particular, had an interest in preventing the exploitation of foreigners which was often at the root of their unfair competition with national workers and which might lead to the polarization of the host society. Ensuring the protection of the rights of migrants was considered a key precondition for migration to be mutually beneficial. In achieving that goal, heed had to be paid to the standards set by existing international human rights instruments and ILO conventions on the rights and treatment of migrant workers. The Symposium stressed that, where actively pursued, policies by countries of origin did have a positive effect on the protection of migrants abroad and contributed to making migration more orderly.

## **V. Improving the position of immigrants and foreign residents in receiving countries: social and cultural issues**

14. Aware that, because of the increasing number of international migrants and the diversification of migration flows, more countries were hosting sizeable populations of long-term foreign residents, the Symposium decided to focus on the issues raised by their status in the host society. Particular attention was given to the economic integration, social mobility, educational opportunities and cultural identity of resident foreigners, immigrants and their children. The studies considered focused on Australia, Canada and the United States; France, Germany and the Netherlands; Japan; and Malaysia. The main issue addressed was how to prevent the economic, social and cultural marginalization of resident foreigners, especially when such marginalization was linked to ethnicity or race. Experience had proved that, whatever the original intentions of migrants, employers and Governments, migration often led to the settlement of some proportion of all the international migrants admitted by receiving countries. Therefore, migration policies should take this outcome into account, especially because the short-term ad hoc measures that had been common in many countries were failing to prevent marginalization. A comprehensive long-term strategy was needed to ensure the socio-economic integration of long-term foreign residents, mainly in regard to their position in the labour market, their access to educational opportunities, and their prospects of social mobility. It was also necessary to recognize and respect the desire of foreigners to maintain their linguistic, cultural and religious practices. The experience of countries of immigration provided evidence regarding which policies were most likely to bring about satisfactory results, although it was recognized that policies and practices needed to be adapted to each context. Public information and education aimed at increasing the public's tolerance were considered crucial, since even the best policies could not succeed where there was a lack of public understanding and support for them. The Symposium warned that the lack of appropriate social and cultural policies having broad-based public support could lead to social tensions by making the local population feel threatened and the foreigners feel insecure and excluded.

## **VI. Releasing the development potential of return migrants**

15. Despite the tendency of some migrants to settle abroad, many others had returned to their countries of origin; but, although return migration was recognized as an important process, there was limited information on its magnitude and public authorities did not attach sufficient importance to the conditions of return. The Symposium aimed to call attention to the impact of return migration by considering the cases of Jamaica, Jordan, the State of Kerala in India, Senegal and Turkey. Ideally, return migration should occur on a voluntary basis. However, there were many circumstances in which return was less than voluntary, particularly when changed conditions in the country of employment, such as those resulting from a recession, political instability or war, produced a large outflow of return migrants. Not only did the conditions of return vary, but so did the impact of return migration on the countries of origin: In some cases, returning migrants appeared to have made almost no contribution to development; in others, positive effects appeared to have occurred. Because countries had generally not taken explicit measures to facilitate the reinsertion of returnees, an assessment of policy interventions could not be carried out. It was suggested that the provision of counselling and information, as well as assistance in obtaining access to credit, was a factor conducive to a successful reinsertion and to the maximization of the positive effects of return migration. However, equity considerations (*vis-à-vis* non-migrants) often precluded the establishment of special credit schemes for returning migrants. It was noted that returnees were more likely to prepare and plan for their return if advised and supported by governmental agencies and non-governmental organizations. Maintenance of social networks in the country of origin appeared to be crucial to ensuring a successful reintegration. Cooperation between the Governments of countries of origin and those of countries of destination, with the assistance of international organizations and non-governmental organizations, was considered a means of developing better strategies to facilitate return and ensure a beneficial reintegration process, especially in cases where large numbers of migrants returned simultaneously.

## VII. Responding to the arrival of asylum-seekers

16. Recognizing the growing importance of forced migration and, particularly, the issues raised by the rising numbers of persons in need of protection who did not qualify as refugees, the Symposium considered the changing responses to the arrival of asylum-seekers in different regions of the world. It was recognized that people were generally impelled to migrate by a complex mix of factors, which might include individual persecution as well as economic needs, family ties, environmental problems and other considerations. One of the key problems confronting the institution of asylum was considered to be the very real difficulty in deciding in the case of each particular asylum-seeker whether individual persecution was the major cause of flight. Developed countries faced with rising costs from the processing of asylum claims were reluctant to continue supporting refugees abroad. Developing countries, in turn, were becoming less generous in admitting and protecting refugees and asylum-seekers. In order to safeguard the institution of asylum, it seemed essential to ensure compliance with basic human rights norms and to safeguard fundamental principles such as the right to asylum in the event of individual persecution and the principle of non-refoulement. To address the new situation, it seemed necessary to search for a range of measures that responded to the diversity of protection needs, including the use of flexible responses such as the granting of temporary protection. It was also crucial to make return feasible, both for asylum-seekers whose claims for asylum had been rejected and for those whose period of temporary protection had ended. To achieve this end, receiving countries needed to engage countries of origin in a constructive dialogue with a view to negotiating practical solutions. It was noted that a number of receiving countries had already concluded readmission agreements with selected countries of origin. In implementing return movements, it was important for the authorities of receiving countries to ensure the legality and legitimacy of their return practices.

17. In developed countries, asylum procedures had become the operational mechanism for resolving the dilemma of migration control versus refugee protection. The rising costs of processing asylum claims had compromised the availability of funds to support refugees in poorer countries. To reduce those costs, receiving countries were adopting increasingly stringent non-admission policies that had the potential of preventing bona fide refugees from seeking asylum. In developing countries, not only was there a growing reluctance to admit refugees but, in addition, the

physical security, dignity and material safety of those admitted could not always be guaranteed. In Africa, the economic hardships that many countries were undergoing had reduced their willingness to share scarce resources with others. The continued availability of asylum options depended not only on burden-sharing but also on a new understanding of the security concerns of the countries involved. In both developed and developing countries, public support for refugee and asylum-seeker protection had been eroding. It was important for Governments to change public perceptions. Public education plus effective and well-managed refugee and asylum-seeker programmes seemed essential to restore public confidence.

## VIII. Panel session on future policy directions

18. The Symposium concluded with a panel discussion that highlighted the main findings and policy implications of the debates. The importance of international cooperation based on an appropriate balance of the concerns of the various parties was stressed. The international harmonization of migration and asylum policies seemed a long-term goal which was most likely to be reached at the regional level. Attention was drawn to the gulf between formal rights and the actual treatment of migrants. The need to create conditions favouring the full participation of migrants in society was underscored. Despite globalization, States still had considerable power to control international migration. However, ill-conceived control mechanisms or disproportionate focus on control might be contributing to the rise in irregular migration. It was stressed that nobody wanted to be an illegal migrant. The challenge was to create conditions that made this unnecessary.

19. The Symposium helped to highlight the need for better collection and analysis of data on various aspects of international migration. Lack of reliable information often led to the perpetuation of myths about migration that were a weak basis for policy formulation. International migration had clearly become a major concern in domestic and foreign policy. A better understanding of its complexities and dynamics was needed to maximize the benefits of migration for all concerned.

## IX. Dissemination of the results of the Technical Symposium

20. A detailed report of the deliberations taking place during the Symposium was published as part of the activities of the Working Group on Migration of the ACC Task Force on Basic Social Services for All. It has been distributed among both government officials and interested scholars. In addition, the unedited papers presented at the Symposium have been collected in a bound volume that is available upon request. Selected papers were accepted for publication in a special issue of the journal *International Migration*, where they will appear in revised form in 1999.

### Notes

<sup>1</sup> *Report of the International Conference on Population and Development, Cairo, 5-13 September 1994* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.95.XIII.18), chap. I, resolution I, annex.

<sup>2</sup> See *Legal Agreements Embodying the Results of the Uruguay Round of Multilateral Trade Negotiations, done at Marrakesh on 15 April 1994* (GATT secretariat publication, Sales No. GATT/1994-7).

## **Annex**

### **List of documents**

#### **Session 2. The dimensions of international migration**

1. International migration levels, trends and what existing data systems reveal

#### **Session 3. International migration and development**

1. Poverty and environmental degradation as root causes of international migration: a critical assessment
2. Regional economic integration and international migration: the case of NAFTA
3. Sub-Saharan Africa: is regional integration a relevant factor affecting the changes taking place in international migration?

#### **Session 4. Analysis of factors generating international migration**

1. A multi-country approach to studying the determinants of migration
2. The new economics of labour migration and the role of remittances in the migration process
3. The processes generating the migration of women
4. The need to import skilled personnel: factors favouring and hindering its international mobility

#### **Session 5. Addressing the employment of migrants in an irregular situation**

1. The case of Hungary
2. The case of Germany
3. The case of Italy
4. The case of South Africa
5. The case of Venezuela

#### **Session 6. Enhancing the capabilities of emigration countries to protect men and women destined for low-skilled employment**

1. The case of the Philippines
2. The case of Bangladesh
3. The case of Morocco
4. The case of Mexico

**Session 7. Improving the position of immigrants and foreign residents in receiving countries: social and cultural issues**

1. The case of traditional settlement countries: Australia, Canada and the United States of America
2. The case of long-standing receiving countries in Europe: France, Germany and the Netherlands
3. The case of a new receiving country in the developed world: Japan
4. The case of a new receiving country in the developing world: Malaysia

**Session 8. Releasing the development potential of return migrants**

1. The case of Jordan
2. The case of Senegal
3. The case of Jamaica
4. The case of Kerala, India
5. The case of Turkey

**Session 9. Responding to the arrival of asylum-seekers**

1. Migrants and asylum-seekers: comparative policy responses
  2. Control versus protection in asylum procedures
  3. Unsuccessful asylum-seekers: the problem of return
  4. The end of asylum? The changing nature of refugee policies in Africa and other developing regions
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